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GEORGE M. McBRIDE

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THE JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY

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The JOURNAL *of* GEOGRAPHY

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COTTON AND HUMAN AFFAIRS

By GEORGE McCUTCHEON McBRIDE

An illustration of the close connection between human affairs in their larger aspect and geographical factors is afforded by the part which cotton (its cultivation, manufacture, and trade) has played in the political affairs of the world. This is the more marked in that it is a distinctly modern development. Only since the beginning of the past century has it been possible to use such expressions as "The Cotton Kingdom," "Cotton as a World Power," "The Cotton Famine," and "Cotton is King."

THE IMPORTANCE OF COTTON

Next to its food supply the civilized world now finds cotton its most necessary commodity. Nine-tenths of man's wearing apparel is made from this fiber. No other class of goods has so wide markets. No other single commodity, not even excepting wheat, forms so important an item of international trade. No other raw material except wheat is so essential to man's comfort and welfare. Millions of people in the United States prosper or fail according to the outcome of the cotton crop. Millions in England depend for their daily bread upon the supply of this textile for their factories. Millions in Germany, France, and other European lands suffer actual want when cotton is cut off from their country's imports.

The areas in which cotton can be grown on a commercial scale are limited. Three geographical factors control its distribution.

CLIMATIC REQUIREMENTS

Suitable climate is the first requisite. Cotton is essentially a sun plant. Constantly warm temperature, prevailingly clear

skies, and a long growing season are necessary. Much cloudy weather, extreme changes of temperature, excessive humidity, or early frosts prevent the bolls from reaching full maturity. The quality of the soil is not of so great importance, though the dark-colored clays, rich in lime, such as characterize the black, waxy loams of Texas and Oklahoma, or the deep alluvial soil that abounds in the valleys of the Mississippi and the Nile, are most suitable; but even indifferent soil, if well drained, will yield good varieties of cotton provided climatic conditions are right.

Moisture is more important but it is rather moisture in the soil than in the air. Rain is not absolutely essential. There is more danger from excessive than from deficient precipitation. Some of the best cotton in the world is raised on irrigated spots in deserts. The black waxy soils of parts of our Cotton Belt and the similar "black cotton" soils of the Deccan owe their excellence in part to a high capacity for retaining moisture. In regions of abundant rainfall, such as our southern states, correct seasonal distribution is of prime importance. Rain in the winter, spring, and early summer, with little during the late summer and in the autumn, provides a favorable distribution. The picking season must be free from rain and storms.

Such a combination of conditions can be found only in the less humid sections of the torrid zone and in parts of the sunny, high-pressure belts of extra-tropical lands. Latitude 35° N. and latitude 30° S. form the general limits for practical cotton cultivation. Moreover, little can be raised on land that is over one thousand feet above sea level. Even within these limits few regions afford the peculiar climatic conditions suited to production on a large scale.

The "Cotton Belt" of the United States (the South Atlantic states and the Gulf states with their neighbors immediately to the north) yields more than half of the world's total crop. India stands second. Her cotton is grown over a distance of 2,000 miles from north to south. In the north cotton is a summer irrigation crop: farther south the crop is planted in the summer to get the benefit of the monsoon rains and is harvested in the dry winter season. Egypt follows with its almost rainless but fertile irrigated valleys of the Nile where cotton is grown under almost ideal

conditions. The yield per acre is double that in the United States. Central China, a monsoon land with months of bright sunshine, raises a small percentage of the world's commercial cotton and far larger quantities for home consumption. Turkestan and Transcaucasia (40° N. latitude) are the regions farthest from the equator where cotton is grown on a large scale.

LABOR AND TRANSPORTATION FACTORS

In order that cotton may be grown profitably there must be, moreover, a sufficient supply of labor adapted to the warm climate and capable of being trained for the handling of the crop. This further limits the areas where this staple can be grown, since the semi-arid districts where climate is most favorable usually possess a sparse population. The best cultivated cotton fields are to be found in Egypt, India and China where there is abundance of hand labor.

Since most of the raw material is not manufactured in the warm countries where it is grown but is shipped to more suitable factory climes, transportation facilities are of greater importance than with many other products. Cotton is essentially an export crop. Districts that lack communication with the great trade routes of the world cannot produce on a commercial scale. Only in times of emergency, when prices are inflated, can cotton-growing in such regions pay. During our Civil War and again during the World War, when European mills were clamoring for raw material and prices were fabulous, cotton cultivation was undertaken in many countries that were poorly supplied with means of transportation. In the former crisis, even far-inland parts of Brazil and Paraguay began to export. Bales of cotton were sometimes sent to the coast on mule back and by oxcart over difficult mountain roads, the journey requiring several months. But under normal conditions easy accessibility by water or rail is imperative.

INTERNATIONAL CHARACTER OF THE COTTON TRADE

Given the importance of cotton in world trade and industry, with the limited areas in which it may be grown, it is not surprising that it has influenced political affairs, domestic and interna-

tional. Reference has already been made to the vast annual movement of the crop from low to high latitudes, from agricultural areas to far-distant industrial centers. This enormous international traffic, with ships upon all waters, is subject to the interruptions of war or national trade regulations, which at any time may imperil the supply for the textile mills and so play havoc with one of the principal industries in countries far from the scene of disturbance. European international relations have frequently been affected by the cotton trade. During the Civil War England's attitude toward the Confederacy was prompted largely by her imperative need of raw material for her Lancashire mills. "We do not like slavery," declared her premier, "but we want cotton." Louis Napoleon, urged by the distressing conditions brought about by the same cotton famine, proposed European intervention to end the struggle and release Southern exports.

Today, too, cotton enters into international relation to a marked degree. In 1914 we saw how England's blockade of German ports paralyzed trade from our Southern States, sent cotton prices tumbling from more than thirteen cents in July to six cents in September, and menaced the whole South with bankruptcy, seriously endangering friendly relations between the two great English-speaking powers. And again on the other hand cotton was not declared contraband of war until August, 1915, largely on this account. Later who can say how far the lack of cotton contributed toward Germany's defeat? For cotton, it must be remembered, is important not only in the manufacture of clothing but still more in the production of ammunition.

International Rivalry for Cotton Lands

Desire for cotton lands has more than once planted the seeds of war. The states of the Southwest were added to our domain in the hope of extending the slave—that is the cotton-growing—territory. After this successful war of conquest certain of our statesmen began to look with covetous eyes upon the more distant lands of tropical America until all the southern republics bristled with hostility. The South finally seceded in order to retain its slaves, without which the planters saw no way of working their cotton lands with profit.

The eager race for tropical dependencies whence products of the torrid zone (including cotton) might be obtained, was one of the many economic causes lying back of the World War.

ENGLISH EFFORTS TOWARD INDEPENDENCE OF AMERICA

After Eli Whitney's invention of the gin had so reduced the cost of production as to make cotton-growing profitable, the United States quickly took the lead in supplying the mills of the world. In 1860 about 80 per cent of the total importations into England came from this country. But beginning in 1858, when a Cotton Supply Association was formed to extend cultivation in Egypt, India, and parts of South America, England endeavored to free herself from dependence upon the North American crop. The effective blockade of our cotton ports during the Civil War gave promise of success in these efforts. A renewal of competition from our Southern States after the war soon undid most that had been achieved, and only since the creation of the British Cotton Growing Association in 1902 have the now important fields of India, Uganda, and the valley of the Nile made England somewhat more independent. How vital the question is may be realized from the fact that cotton goods form one-quarter of the exports of the United Kingdom.

In 1914 there were but two nations that exported cotton in any abundance. There was almost an Anglo-American monopoly of the trade. About ninety per cent of the world's commercial supply was grown under two flags. In 1913 the United States raised 60.9 per cent, India 17.1 per cent, and Egypt 6.6 per cent—all other countries (including many British colonies) producing but 15.4 per cent.

EFFORTS OF GERMANY AND OTHER NATIONS TO OBTAIN COTTON LANDS

This forced dependence upon a foreign supply of such an essential commodity was one of the principal factors that led the other industrial nations to study the possibility of extending their control over tropical lands.

Germany, ranking third among the cotton-manufacturing nations and having nearly a tenth of her population dependent upon the textile industry, early realized that she was at the mercy of the

outside world for the raw material for her mills and beginning a search for new fields of her own, rapidly acquired a colonial empire. In 1900 the organization "Das Kolonial-Wirtschaftliche Komitee," established to promote colonial development began active measures for the encouragement of cotton cultivation in these newly acquired territories. Her efforts, however, availed but little; for in 1914, though owner of extensive colonial possessions, she was still unrepresented even among the minor cotton-producing nations.

About 1,200,000 of the people of France are dependent on the cotton manufactories for their support. Spurred on as England and Germany by the industrial growth of the United States France in 1903 founded L'Association cotonnière coloniale française. The association has revived cotton cultivation in Algeria and other parts of northern Africa and has started promising developments in Indo-China and Madagascar.

Possibility of Future Expansion

Several important regions, well adapted climatically to cotton culture, still remain undeveloped. Some of these lie within the sphere of Anglo-North American dominance, some are in lands independent of this control.

In the United States there are two districts which are rapidly coming to the fore as cotton producers. Irrigation has made a new world of great areas in the Southwest. Along the Salt River and in the Gila valley of Arizona, on the Yuma reclamation project, and in the Imperial, San Joaquin, and Palo Verde valleys of California cotton cultivation has received a great stimulus. Each year over 86,000 acres are planted there, mostly with Egyptian varieties, for which there is an increasing demand. California's crop in 1918 was valued at nearly $10,000,000 and that of Arizona at over $6,000,000. In these semi-arid or desert lands, where climatic conditions resemble the almost ideal ones of Egypt, there are still vast possibilities for expansion of the American cotton belt.

Egypt and the Sudanese countries—especially the Egyptian Sudan, the territories south of Lake Chad and in the Niger bend—offer immense areas where, if water can be supplied, cotton cultivation can be greatly extended. Toward this end British and

French governments are working through their irrigation projects.

Development here is also dependent on the improvement of transportation and a similar condition affects the possibilities of cotton production in Uganda, British East Africa, Rhodesia, and many other parts of Africa where it can be greatly increased through the development of transportation facilities. Some 12,000,000 square miles of African territory are situated within the zones of cotton-growing possibility.

In India efforts towards increased irrigation are being made in the drier parts; while in other parts, where rain cotton is grown, an attempt is being made toward improving the staple produced.

In China particularly, the wide valley of the Hwangho, districts along the Grand Canal, and the valley of the Yangtzekiang are already producing and offer an enormous field for extension. It was Germany's dream to center this vast area about the peninsula of Shantung, with its German-developed port of Tsingtao, by means of railway and commercial concessions. Japan, with her fast-expanding cotton manufactories, would find such a vantage point as attractive as did the Germans. It may yet afford another illustration of the political importance of cotton-growing lands.

It is toward South America that some look for great cotton-producing countries that will offer a more independent source of supply. The fiber is already being grown in every part of that continent. From the Magdalena to the Uruguay, from the desert along the Pacific to the district of Pernambuco, the plant is found. Only two South American countries are as yet producing for export, and their output is almost negligible in the world's total yield. Brazil produces 2.3 per cent and Peru less than 1 per cent of the world's supply. However, South America, lying almost entirely within tropical and subtropical latitudes, possesses immense tracts where the growing season is long and free from frost, where there are marked dry seasons even in regions of abundant rainfall, as well as considerable arid areas where the climate is ideal for cotton and where irrigation has been practiced from time immemorial. Moreover, cotton is indigenous over almost the

whole continent and has been cultivated on a small scale since before the discovery of the New World. During the two great crises of cotton's modern history attempts have been made to increase the production of the cotton fields in Brazil and Peru as well as to introduce its cultivation on a commercial scale in vast areas of Colombia, Paraguay, and northern Argentina. A measure of success has attended these efforts, but lack of sufficient labor supply and inadequate transportation facilities have as yet prevented the development of cotton cultivation there on a scale that could compete with North American production. These obstacles will be removed, however, with the progressing settlement of those rapidly growing countries. It is confidently predicted by cotton experts that the great highlands of Brazil and the plains of northern Argentina, Paraguay, and Bolivia, with the more limited coastal valleys of Peru will eventually rival the cotton belt of North America and vie with Egypt, India, and China in supplying the world, thus breaking the virtual Anglo-North American monopoly in this, the most important item of international trade.

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GEOGRAPHY AND THE WAR*

By ALBERT PERRY BRIGHAM
Colgate University

IGNORANCE OF GEOGRAPHY BEFORE THE WAR[1]

Few Americans prior to the summer of 1914 had formed the habit of studying maps. Geography was regarded as a subject for children, whose textbook maps were on rare occasions called into service by their elders at home. Even these texts, and the statement is true of them all, dealt with the Balkan region of Europe briefly and perfunctorily. Not one person in a hundred could have given a clear account of the relative position of the Balkan countries, much less of their relief, their rivers, their agriculture, or their mineral resources. As to their social complications the common mind was in profound darkness.

Alongside of this ignorance lay the fact that for a generation the Balkans were a focal region in the political strategy of the Central Powers. Here the "corridor route" was the pet of German ambition and the nurseling of German finance and diplomacy. The completion of the Bagdad railroad was the goal whose attainment would open the way to the sovereignty of three continents. In the Balkans was to begin the conflagration that threatened to burn up the world.

To come a little nearer the center of western civilization, how many people had any notion of the Vistula? Now we know it as a great river, the main artery of the restored Poland. We follow it from venerable Cracow on its upper waters, to the great Warsaw on its middle course, to its mouth where stands Danzig, Hanseatic port in old days, German center of later times, the internationalized outlet of Poland today. The Vistula's waters that have been reddened by the blood of battling armies will henceforth bear the traffic of an old-new nation.

Ignorance of location was outdone by ignorance of the land forms of Europe. A few persons might have been able to locate

* Given as the President's Address before the National Council of Geography Teachers, at a joint session with the Association of American Geographers, St. Louis, December, 1919.

[1] The writer has dealt with this topic more at length than is possible here in the Educational Review, April, 1919.

the Vosges Mountains as lying, since 1870, on the Franco-German boundary. The Vosges were in a quiet sector during the war; yet the dispatches told us of Joffre's early raid into the adjoining plains of Mulhouse, of the winter snows in the mountains, and of other things which gave the little mountain range a permanent place in our knowledge.

Of the historic runway between Germany and the heart of France we knew as little. Metz and Verdun, indeed, stood there as threatening major sentinels of Teuton and Latin, but average comprehension hardly went beyond that. In June, 1914, the present speaker visited Trier and made the enchanting journey along that marvelous chain of incised meanders under terraced and vine-clad slopes from Trier to Coblenz. Then first he really comprehended that Trier had been an imperial Roman city; then first he knew that the Moselle virgin surpassed in her beauty the master Rhine; and then he could not have brought within the scope of the wildest dream the fact that in five short years the American soldier would pass by that gateway to the watch on the Rhine.

How many know today that the Ardennes Plateau lies between the Metz-Verdun gap and the Belgian plains? And how many could intelligently set forth the political and the topographical considerations which led the German to choose the Flanders route? And when the Teuton did attempt the Verdun approach, we say it was the valor of the French that doomed him to fail. This is true, but there is still a wide ignorance, even among the earnest readers of war news, of those natural obstacles, those rugged escarpments, which rise one after another to face the fighting German, as he tries to move westward to the heart of the Paris Basin.

The currents of trade that supply our daily needs ran over the earth and the seas so smoothly in pre-war days, that we had little interest in their sources or their courses. We had had no experience of empty sugar bowls, of war bread, of coal rationing and heatless days. We did not realize that Germany could feed herself much longer under an effective blockade than could Great Britain; and we knew so little about the world of which we are a part, and so little of Germany and her purposes, that many of us dreamed all too long that we could stay out of the war. If some of our officials and more of our citizens had had an adequate knowl-

edge of what was outside of our own dooryards, we should have been less easily victimized by propaganda and frightfulness, should have struck our blow in Europe a year sooner than we did, clinched it with a crushing finish, and seen an official peace dawn on a tired world some months ago.

THE WHOLE WORLD INVOLVED

If we glance at each of the great continents of the globe, we see how truly the war is called a world war. Of Europe's approximately four million square miles of territory, seven-eighths was directly involved in the conflict. For Africa the fraction is larger, thirty-two out of thirty-three parts having been in belligerency. Asia with her seventeen million square miles shows twenty-four twenty-fifths of her territory involved in the conflict, while Australia was completely in the throes of war. Turning to North America, we shall find that four-fifths of her area of nearly ten million square miles is occupied by two of the great countries that were in the struggle. Only about one-half of South America remained nominally neutral. Summing it all up, of the fifty-two million square miles and more of territory making up the land of the entire globe, exclusive of Antarctica, more than forty-five million square miles belong to the belligerent nations, and the remaining few million were more or less profoundly affected.

The extent of the war and of world changes may be seen if we glance at the map of Africa. If Germany had won, she would have taken possession of the Belgian Congo and of adjacent British and French colonies on the south and north, making a solid block of German sovereignty across equatorial Africa from the Atlantic to the Indian Ocean. What the extent of her aggressions in North Africa from Gibraltar to Suez would have been we cannot say, but that it would have been large there can be no doubt. As it is, however, Germany is excluded from Africa, and both British and French possessions are enormously enlarged. Furthermore the great obstacle has been removed to the construction of the Cape-to-Cairo Railway. That obstacle was a thousand miles of German territory in East Africa.

Germany's profoundest aggressions and her largest hopes were involved in her project for a Middle Europe. This meant, to

begin with, the actual subjugation of seaports in southern England, the destruction of France as an industrial nation by the acquisition of her supply of coal and iron in the north and of every industry on her Belgian border, the subjugation of Belgium, the ultimate overrunning of Holland, and the free use of the great corridor route down the Danube through Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, and Turkey, to Constantinople, Syria, and the Persian Gulf. It meant that the entire Old World, the great land mass of three continents, was to be bisected in its very vitals. It meant ultimately the destruction of the British Empire and the throttling of India, which would be left in a state of anarchy or under the German heel. It meant ultimate aggressions in China, commercial or political sovereignty of South America, and in the not distant future German vengeance upon North America.

Every onset in Flanders, on the Marne, at Verdun, in the Argonne, saw the world poised in a trembling balance; would our planet be Teuton or would it be free? Today we wait for the new map of Europe, the new map of Africa, the recasting of southwestern Asia, the fresh distribution of Oceanica. It is no time to live in ignorance of the face of the earth or allow our children to sleep on in the twilight of geographic half-knowledge.

POPULAR INTEREST AROUSED BY THE WAR

More than two million Americans have crossed the Atlantic Ocean during the past three years. The greater number of them would never have seen the shores of Europe but for the demand of war. Nearly all of these have seen some parts of France; a large number have been in Great Britain and on the Rhine; and smaller numbers in other parts of the Old World. Thousands of these persons are college men, trained to observe, interpret, and remember. All have a new interest and some ineffaceable knowledge of the lands they have seen, of the climatic conditions they have experienced, and of the people they have observed. Almost every man, whether conscious of it or not, is, on his return, a missionary of geographic knowledge to his neighbors and companions. There are few Americans who have not received from some American soldier a fresh view of a world other than our own, and there will be more than a million homes in which a member of the

American Legion for years to come will tell bits of geographic story to his children, co-operating with the struggling teacher to vitalize the study of the textbook and make foreign lands and alien life seem real.

All of the greater newspapers and popular periodicals have since 1914 been veritable encyclopedias of geographic knowledge. No one who has followed these sources of information has failed to get a new interest in countries, in cities and towns whose very existence was before unknown, in rivers small and great; in homes and implements, occupations and garbs of strange people, and in the people themselves. Photographs have been taken in uncounted thousands, making the Sunday issue of every metropolitan journal an art gallery and bringing the living story of war in fierce realism across the moving picture screen.

However much remains to be acquired of the exact knowledge that is by and by to be taught in our schools, the average man now knows that there is a Poland, and that it is Poland restored after a century of dismemberment and oppression. We know there is an Esthonia and a Lithuania, a Ukrainia, a Czecho-Slovakia, and a Yugo-Slavia; and we have some real desire to find out what is behind these names. We are looking eagerly to see the Turk ousted from Europe, to see Italo-Greco-Turkish problems settled in Asia Minor, to see the flag of Armenia run up over the sad but hopeful remnants of an outraged and all but assassinated nation. We shall watch with jubilant interest the fresh life that will renew the desecrated land where the Founder of Christianity lived and wrought. I say we—the great, half-educated but awakened public mind, which has opened its long-closed eyes in crude wonder, as if it saw trees walking, and is waiting for the fuller vision which you are called to give them in the new-old science of geography.

It is not easy to measure the change in the popular appreciation of geography and geographic facts and principles; but if one recalls his own mental attitude before the war in regard to foreign countries, he will find at once a new understanding of the resources, products, and highways of commerce; of political boundaries and the principles on which they should be drawn; in short, of the world and of men living together in it, as the background and conditioning of history, economics, sociology, and racial destiny.

THE WAR'S USE OF GEOGRAPHY AND GEOGRAPHERS

Many members of the National Council and all members of the Association of American Geographers know something of the work of the foremost authority on the geology and geography of Alaska, Lieutenant-Colonel Alfred H. Brooks, who during American participation in the war spent nearly two years, as a specialist in earth science, on the French front. It was the speaker's privilege to hear Colonel Brooks expound the military significance of physical features at the recent educational congress in Harrisburg. It is understood that his address will be published with the proceedings of that congress. In such an exposition, as in various textbooks of military strategy, one learns that knowledge of geography is vital in war.

What the weather will be this afternoon or tomorrow, what the topography is beyond the hill or the forest, whether the soil cover is deep enough for trenches, at what depth is the water table, whether the stream at a given point is fordable, the nature of its banks and bed, its seasonal and storm variations, whether, when a given position is to be reached or held, there is a screen from enemy fire—these are a few of the numerous problems of a strictly geographic nature about which commanders require information. Upon the accuracy of this information the issue of the conflict may depend.

Thus it was that American, French, and British students of the earth, who in 1912 had joined in the friendly migration of the Transcontinental Excursion with a number of German geographers and had broken bread with them from New York to San Francisco, were pitted against them after 1914 in a struggle as deadly as if it were one of guns and grenades.

In addition to the corps of geographers employed upon General Pershing's staff in France, many experts in the several geographic fields were specially employed in Washington. At all times, in peace as in war, an unsuspected amount of geographic work is in progress in the various departments in Washington. This is true of the Geological Survey, the Department of Agriculture, the Departments of Commerce and State, the Forest Service, the Bureau of Soils, and the Coast Survey.

Other boards and commissions have during the war been

charged with a great volume of geographic work. Among these are the Fuel Administration, the War Industries Board, the Division of Military Intelligence, and the Shipping Board. To these various forms of inquiry were drawn geographers from many of the universities, colleges, and normal colleges and schools of the entire country. Geography was also represented by a committee of the National Research Council, which did important work, now to be continued by a reorganized committee consisting of geologists and geographers.

The House Commission afforded opportunity for our science to contribute to the problems that emerged with the approach of peace. This group performed its preliminary work of research and map making with the American Geographical Society in New York and then transferred its activities to Paris, where Americans and experts from the Allied nations had in constant readiness all available data as to boundaries, racial affinities, and resources of all the peoples and countries of the world concerning which questions of settlement could arise.[2]

THE NEW OPPORTUNITY IN EDUCATIONAL GEOGRAPHY

That there is a fresh and enlarged field for our science in view of the foregoing recital needs no argument. The need of an advance in geographic instruction is widely recognized, and many are alert to meet it.

The new impulse will be felt at once in our universities and colleges. Fresh demands for government work and for filling new chairs of geography in schools of business have already somewhat depleted our geographic forces in the higher institutions. But, in face of all limitations, many colleges are offering one, two, or more courses in regional, commercial, or physical geography—colleges which at the opening of our century had never dreamed of such instruction as a part of their curriculum.

At the request of the geographic committee of the National Research Council, as earlier constituted, there is in preparation a voluminous report on the conditions and opportunities of higher

[2] A somewhat full account of these activities is given by Professor R. H. Whitbeck, in *School and Society*, Vol. 9, 1919, pp. 223-228, and of the work of the American Geographical Society in the *Geogr. Rev.*, January, 1919. A summary of the war work of the members of the Association of American Geographers will be given in the next volume of the Annals of the Association.

instruction in geography in the universities of Europe and America. Fifteen or twenty geographic experts on both sides of the water are or soon will be engaged in preparing parts of this report, which it is believed will be effective in bringing geography to a position in our American institutions comparable to that which it holds in Europe.

A splendid opportunity—may we not say duty—lies before the normal and training schools of this country. In a goodly number of them expert teaching, ample equipment, and large interest are leading the way. But scores, probably some hundreds, of our training schools need at once to make a large advance, if we are in the near future to bring good geography to the great masses of our youth. The present speaker hopes therefore that means may be available to give the widest publicity to the report of Professor Cushing presented at this session.[3]

The problems of our high-school and elementary geography will be dealt with in their proper place by the other report offered at this meeting, and they need not be discussed here. We should, however, make sure that our conclusions and recommendations are made available to all men and women in official charge of our schools. These will include all members of school boards, the superintendents in city systems and country units of admistration, and the principals of all high and normal schools.

We can count on popular interest and support if we determine to get recognition and results, and we should act both by individual influence and in every associate capacity to secure geographic sessions and discussions in our regular and special conventions of teachers in state and nation. Notable congresses have during the past year been held in New York and Pennsylvania; and in both, well organized geographic programs led to vigorous and, it is believed, productive discussion.

The time is ripe for a large and swift advance in the supply and use of maps in this country. The world map is to be made over, and it will not only show a new complex of boundaries, it will reveal and display racial, economic, and commercial facts and relations to a degree never known in our geographic experience.

[3] See Report of the Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the National Council of Geography Teachers, *Journ. of Geogr.*, February, 1920, p. 75.

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF GEOGRAPHY TEACHERS

It was indeed fortunate for geographic education in America, that at the very opening of the war the National Council was organized. Its record of achievement is already remarkable. It has enlisted the best endeavors of a large number of our keenest scholars and most progressive teachers. In all that has been done we pay the tribute of honor and gratitude, where it belongs, to our Secretary, Professor Miller, who in season and out of season has incited us to every good geographic work. He has brought our teaching forces together, we have knowledge of each other, and our widely established state councils have done much in their local spheres and are affording us vital machinery for initiating and guiding a nation-wide movement.

We could not foresee, when we organized the Council, that we were doing it in the nick of time. We did not then know that so soon every thinking man must open his eyes on the whole world, that every voter and every public servant must handle problems of cosmic proportions, while every family would be affected in work, in food, in the garments on their backs, in their earnings and their spendings, their present and their future, by events that hung over them. In these fateful years the antipodes have not been remote from any of us; and we may not, except to our peril, live longer in the ignorance with which we have too long been content.

Our opportunities to meet have been curtailed by war, but the Secretary has not allowed us to fall apart. We are now gathered, under happy conditions, with fresh and powerful motives to go on with our work. We have a great reservoir of public interest upon which to draw, school authorities have been enlightened and made more accessible, and it is only left for us to enter into every opportunity, to gather the fresh and alluring material that is all around us, and to organize out of these newly vitalized elements a geographic course of study that is worthy of our needs and opportunities. The last thing that I mean here is uniformity; for first, last, and all the time we must remember that the teacher, knowing geography and putting life into it, is all in all. Our campaign seeks various and composite results, good textbooks, suitable plans of study, material equipment, maps, books, museums;

but success in training geography teachers during the next ten years is more important than everything else.

We have reason to appreciate the policy of the American Geographical Society in adopting the *Journal of Geography*. We know that the high editorial efficiency of Professor Dodge, the founder, and Professor Whitbeck, his successor, will be maintained and that this periodical will be a worthy leader in our teaching. It should have a subscription list of ten thousand among the geography teachers of America.

GEOGRAPHY IN THE NATIONAL AND WORLD PROBLEMS OF THE FUTURE

Our ignorance of geographic facts and principles is not confined to foreign countries or to other continents. There are educated people in New England who have never lifted their eyes over the Berkshires to the far beyond. Whatever be the merits of the Pacific coast contention about incoming Japanese, the dweller east of the Mississippi should beware of pronouncing judgment unless he knows California.

Too many Americans have known absolutely what to do with the Philippine Islands, who do not know the Philippine Islands. Seward was abused for paying a few million dollars for Alaska, because prevailing ignorance thought that great domain a piece of useless and frozen North. Jack London lived a while in the Hawaiian Islands and said, speaking of all Americans, "they don't know what they've got." The novelist's words express our general ignorance as regards our own domain.

At the moment when this is written there is not in print a modern and fairly detailed regional description of any state or major region of our Atlantic or Pacific coasts, that would be adequate for the information of an officer of the Army, or a student at West Point or Annapolis. On this very day of writing there is quoted in a leading New York daily a statement from the annual report of the Geological Survey, that we do not possess a map of the United States suited for military or economic development, for nearly sixty per cent of our country has not yet been traversed by detailed surveys or represented by adequate maps.

We have made some progress in the matter of conservation, and it will perhaps be the great and permanent glory of Theodore

Roosevelt's administration that he knew that whole country as few men over knew it and that we then went so far in the protection and rational use of our natural resources. A few days ago I heard a Pennsylvania superintendent of schools, himself once a coal miner, urge upon the teachers of his state their great opportunity to give intensive instruction in coal and its recovery. Teachers work in Shamokin, Pottsville, Scranton, and Pittsburgh in blindness to a great object lesson under their very feet. If our youth knew the origin of coal, its fixed limits in amount, and the enormous waste of valuable fuel due to the greed of selfish operators, we should build up a body of public sentiment to be felt at the polls, on the bench, in jury seats, and in legislatures. Crime and waste fatten on our geographic ignorance.

The only place where our youth can learn of our mineral wealth, of our soils and climate, of our crops and markets, of our manufactures and transportation, of the glory of our forests and the wealth of our watered fields, is the geography class. Yet the majority of our high schools and too many of our normal schools are turning aside from this supposedly infantile study to the hash of general science or to method courses in which bricks are to be made without straw.

Who of you before this war began ever saw an American flag in a foreign port? You might have found one on a coasting vessel at Halifax, or Tampico, or on the Yucatan or Panama shore, but you looked in vain for it in Liverpool, London, Hamburg, Havre, Bergen, Marseilles, Naples, or in the ports of the antipodes.

It was not always so. On an August day of the year now ending, an old and toothless man, met by chance on Cape Cod, told me stories of Singapore, Melbourne, Batavia, Hongkong, and Calcutta. Who was he? One of the very few now living who had a part in the glories of the American sailing ship, that ship that swung proudly out on the breeze from little New England coastal villages where you now scarcely see a dory. The old salt found Cape Cod men living in all those distant havens, in the days when Professor Palfrey could say at the bicentennial of Barnstable, that wherever in the world you see an American flag, you may have good hope of finding under it someone who can tell you the harbor soundings of Barnstable, Chatham, or Wellfleet.

The flag was on all the seas. It disappeared from them all, but it is now to be unfurled again; and American boys and girls should be taught to follow the flag, to be at home in remote harbors, to know the lading and the unlading, to know the network of American commerce which is to engirdle the globe.

South America and the Orient are rapidly being made a theater of American banking enterprise, and Americans will not much longer have to bewail the poverty of our trading resources among foreign peoples. We shall no longer think we can trade with South Americans by circulars, or that we can send to them commercial representatives unable to talk with them in their native Portuguese or Spanish. Nor will the commercial traveler longer invade a South American or Oriental environment thinking that he can conclude a bargain with lightning speed, and without the expedients of delaying courtesy and custom which pervade those lands. All this points to the study of linguistics for trading and to the study of geography for knowledge—knowledge of countries, of commodities, and of men.

Business education is taking a new stride in America, and some of our best-trained geographers are now engaged in the fitting of men for the larger spheres of commerce. This is not altogether a result of the war. It was already coming but it has received powerful impulse from the new and wider relations into which the war has thrust us.

WIDE HORIZONS

Geography is to be a part of the training of statesmen. One of the reasons, perhaps the great reason, for thrusting geography, a generation ago, into the classic conservatism of Oxford and Cambridge, was that some gentlemen in London thought it was absurd for British public men to rule in geographic ignorance an empire that followed the sun.

Now we cannot have a school for statesmen. All Americans may be statesmen in embryo. Our only safety is to catch them while they are young. Statesmen will, in the long run, be made out of the material in our schools, and their course will be shaped by public opinion. If the public is ignorant of the world, then public action will be haphazard, based on ignorance and on desire for

party advantage. We are facing economic readjustments which have to do with the resources, the transportation, the tastes, and the industrial conditions of every country in the world. Shall our stream of public policy stagnate in the swamps of geographic ignorance, or shall it flow from mountain heights which have vision of the world?

It was her fundamental, ineradicable provincialism which drove Germany upon the rocks of disaster. The world will not accept America in the rôle of a dominating world power, if her ideals and her will are not united in the practical sense; and practical sense is based on knowledge. The statesman whose knowledge goes little beyond New England, or the Gulf border, or the prairie, or the Rocky Mountain state, can only follow some leader, good or bad, in his vote on foreign policies or his attitude toward domestic problems.

If some statesmen had had a wider horizon in their history and their geography, the tragic delays and possible blunderings in Fiume, in Thrace, in Dobrudja and in Constantinople might have been averted. Whatever we may think of a league of nations, or of the League of Nations as it has been spread before us, if we are to cooperate with the well-disposed or to fight the ill-disposed, we must know the world. It is not merely a few people in Washington, or Paris, or London, or Rome, or the universities, or editorial offices, or among the students of history and social philosophy, it is the great body of people who must have intelligence, or no government and no combination of governments can act at the right time or be sure of acting on the right side.

We must therefore have geographic training for citizenship. Putting the people in the saddle is very well if the people are fit to ride and know where they are going. The ungeographic voter is pretty sure to derive his opinion from a blatant neighbor, or a hidebound editorial writer, or from the party boss in his neighborhood.

This geographical knowledge is equally necessary in our efforts toward Americanization. The melting pot does not fuse without fuel. Sympathy, knowledge, and purpose are required in making citizens out of aliens. If you know European countries you have seen a new light in the face of a Norwegian, a Swede, a Czech, or an Italian when you have talked with him familiarly of the scenery,

the cities, and the modes of life in his native land. Teachers, ministers, and civic and social missionaries need knowledge of the world in laying the basis for intelligent patriotism. To know something of Italy or Poland or Rumania or Greece is to have an avenue of wise, sympathetic, and effective approach to the sons of these lands.

At the educational congress held recently in the city of Albany, Mr. O. P. Austin, now statistician of one of the great banks of New York City, enlarged upon a profoundly interesting aspect of the war, or of the results that are bound to follow from the war. In referring to the vast development of the internal combustion engine as used in the ordinary automobile, the tractor, and the airplane, he stated that the tropical areas of the world are about equal in extent to the temperate areas, and are equal in population also, but that these tropical regions provide only about one-sixth of the commerce of the world while acre for acre they are perhaps more productive than the temperate zones. They have not been utilized because utilization was impossible through man power and animal power alone. The internal combustion engine, it would seem, will provide the means for exploiting the entire tropical belt of the world to its fullest capacity, and this will revolutionize the productive and industrial conditions of the entire globe. Thus invention keeps geography in flux.

William Pitt, an old man and sick, returned to his home in 1806, eleven days before his death. With him came the news of Austerlitz. As he entered the hall his eye fell on a map of Europe. "Roll up that map," he said, "it will not be wanted these ten years." We too have seen the map of the world cast into the scrap heap. We watch eagerly to see the new map unfold. In time, if all too tardily, it will appear. It is yours, fellow geographers, to make the most of it. Your business is world knowledge. It is a gigantic undertaking. It calls for patience, for thought, for toil, for training. You are engaged in an enterprise that requires some of the fervor and serious enthusiasm that belong to the missionary. You are heralds; and it is no small part of your aim that men may live harmoniously in the world, doing its work and sharing its good gifts in mutual understanding and brotherhood.

TEACHING THE GEOGRAPHY OF THE BALKANS

The Balkans, "the danger spot of Europe," is surely a region that should receive special attention at the hands of the geography teacher. But in practice we find it a region avoided or hastily passed over. It is "too difficult and complicated." This is certainly true if the study of the region approached by the old, conventional outline method. In the pages of the *Journal* we have frequently urged replacement of this method by one based on essentials. "Every region has its distinctive features, its big issues." Analyze the features of the Balkans, determine the essentials, and the problem is simplified.

Essential Facts of Balkan Geography

I. The Balkan Peninsula is a mountainous region lying between (1) Central Europe, (2) Western Asia, (3) the Mediterranean. It is a meeting place of different climates, different products, different peoples.

II. The mountainous relief makes difficult intercommunication between different parts of the peninsula, but on the other hand certain natural roads encourage movement to and from and through it. In the sub-peninsula (Greece) the sea provides natural highways. In the continental part great depressions lead from the east and the southeast to the northwest—from Asia to Central Europe and vice versa.

We now proceed to an expansion of these facts from the standpoint of the information with which the teacher should be familiar.

FACTORS IN THE POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY OF THE BALKANS

Between Europe and Asia, separating and uniting the different worlds of the West and the East, lies the Ægean, friendliest of all seas. From the Grecian peninsula long headlands and deep gulfs pointing southeast and island guide-posts leading to the Asiatic peninsula invite man to take to Homer's "watery ways." The narrow Straits of Dover separate two different peoples. The same people, Greeks, are found on the opposite shores of the Ægean, hence the Greek claim to Smyrna and other sections of the western coast of Asia Minor.

Greece, Country of the Seaways

As the old Greek geographer Strabo pointed out, the sea is the determining element in the geography of Greece. And the strength of this element is partly determined by the limited attraction of the land, in which respect Greece resembles that other great seafaring country of the European mainland, Norway. Greece is a country of rugged relief. The cultivable hill slopes are covered with vineyards and olive groves, and there are other crop-producing trees of the Mediterranean type; but the area in which cereals can be grown is small. The country must supplement her own resources and from early times the Greek has been fisherman and sailor and merchant rather than agriculturist. And Greece has always been a land of cities and ships, a circumstance directly related to her early and brilliant cultural development.

Maritime and Continental Divisions of the Balkan Peninsula

With her population living on her shores and islands and small seaward looking plains, Greece is a land entirely different from the other regions of the Balkan peninsula, from which she is further cut off by the mountainous interior. The broadest classification of the Balkan Peninsula recognizes two divisions:

1. The maritime Hellenic region.
2. The Continental Block comprising the rest of the peninsula.

The climatic map suggests the appropriateness of the term Continental Block. Northward the peninsula is open to Central Europe. Westward it is cut off from the sea by a lofty mountain wall. Eastward it lies open to the Asiatic steppe lands by routes north and south of the inhospitable Euxine. In contradistinction to the Hellenic region the Continental Block is a land of the plow and the ox, of rural communities instead of cities, of the soil-loving Slav instead of the restless cosmopolitan Greek. But it is not a land of rural peace for—and here is the most significant fact of Balkan geography—it lies on a world highway. Seaways have dominated the history of Greece. Landways are of dominant importance in the continental portion of the Balkans, landways along which successions of invaders have come and gone—Roman legions, barbarian hordes, Crusader and Turk, down to the German invader of yesterday.

THE GREAT ROADS OF THE BALKANS

The Roman Empire expanding eastward carried dominion across the peninsula to beyond the Danube, leaving a permanent memorial of her occupation in the name and language of Rumania

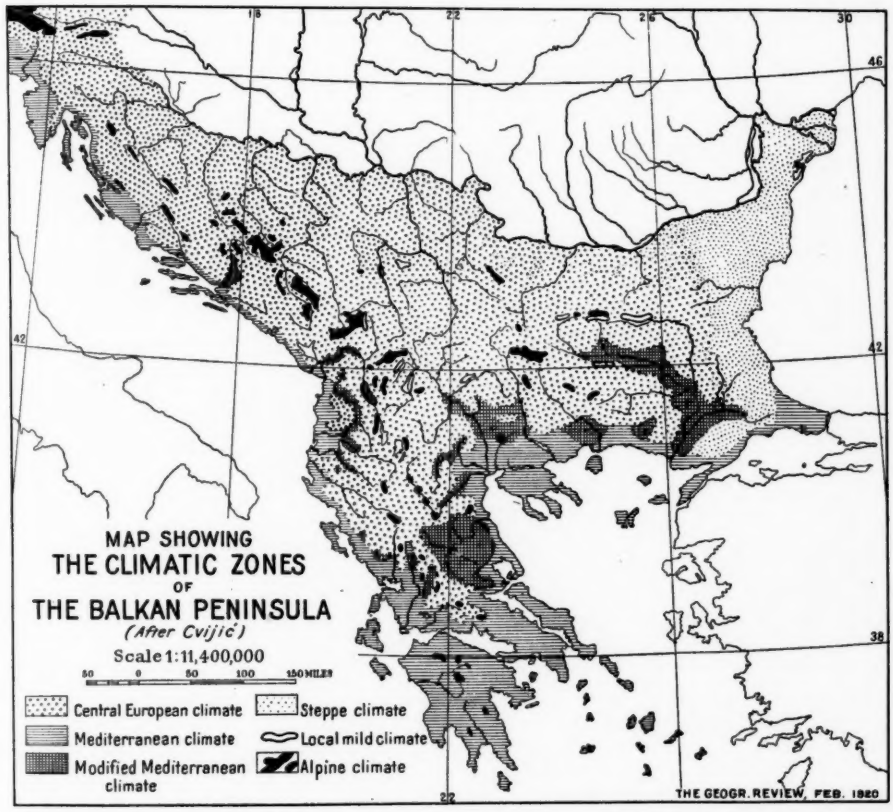

FIG. 1—The climatic map—which should be studied in conjunction with the relief map, Fig. 2—shows very clearly some of the most important facts of Balkan geography. Three major types of climate meet in the Balkan peninsula. The sub-peninsula has a maritime climate of the distinctive type known as Mediterranean. The remainder of the peninsula with the exception of the Ægean shores and a narrow strip along the Adriatic has a continental climate. The Central European type predominates, but on the east where the peninsula is open to Asia steppe characteristics prevail. "Islands" of mild climate and of Alpine climate indicate the rugged relief. Extensive areas of the latter clearly suggest the mountain barrier of the west. Special note should be made of the varieties of climatic types encountered in Thrace and Macedonia.

and in the Balkans such traces of it as her military roads. Until the late German invasion, however, the other great movements that have affected the Balkans have had their origin in the east and their courses have been profoundly affected by the chief features of the relief—the great natural highways of the country. The first of these is the Morava-Vardar valley, a great furrow

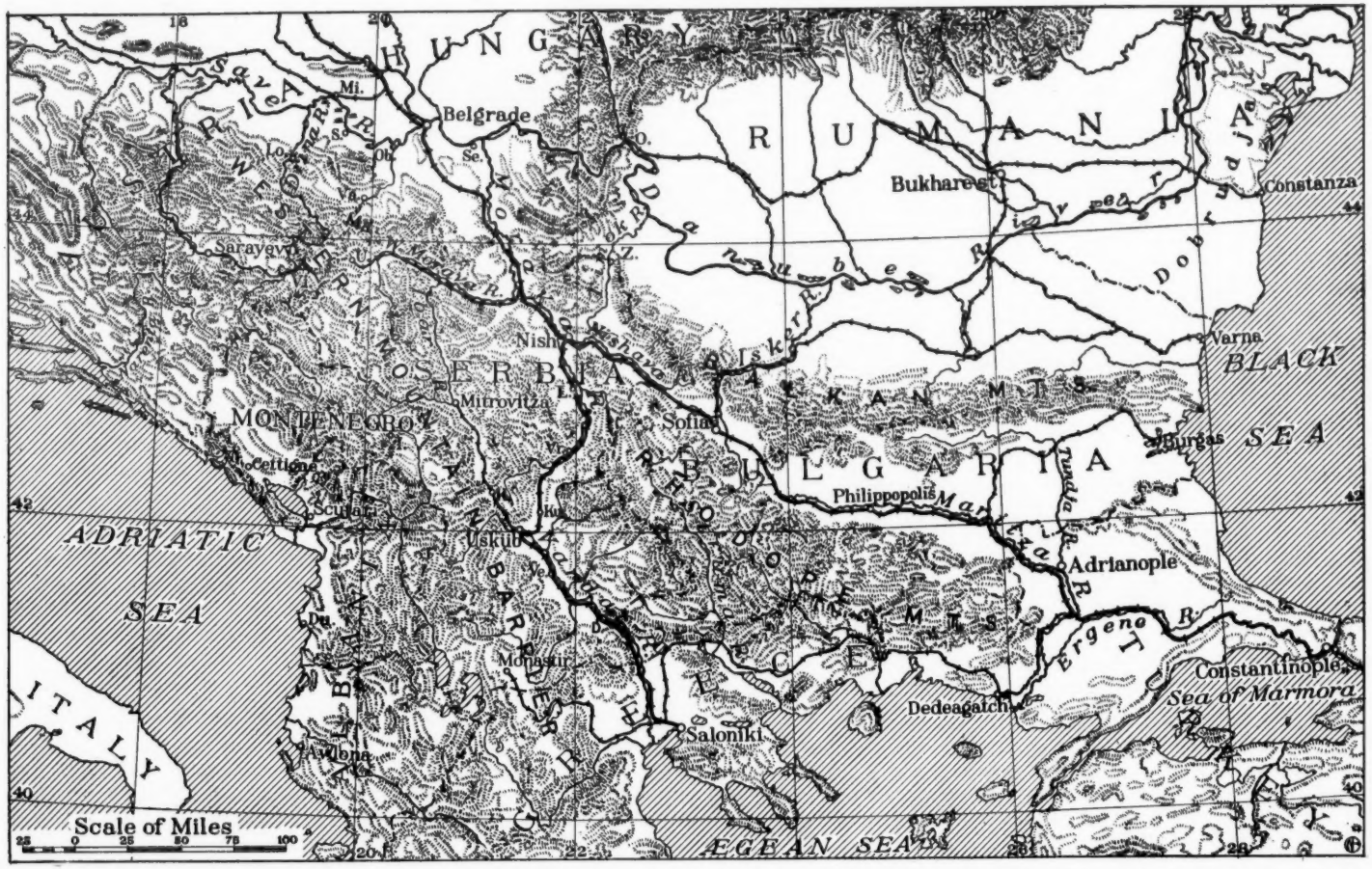

FIG. 2—Relief map of the Balkans showing the main lines of communication. The Morava-Vardar valley provides a short route from Central Europe to the Mediterranean and the Suez Canal. The Morava-Maritza valley leads to the "bridge" of Anatolia connecting Europe and Asia. It thus forms a part of the "Berlin-Bagdad" route.

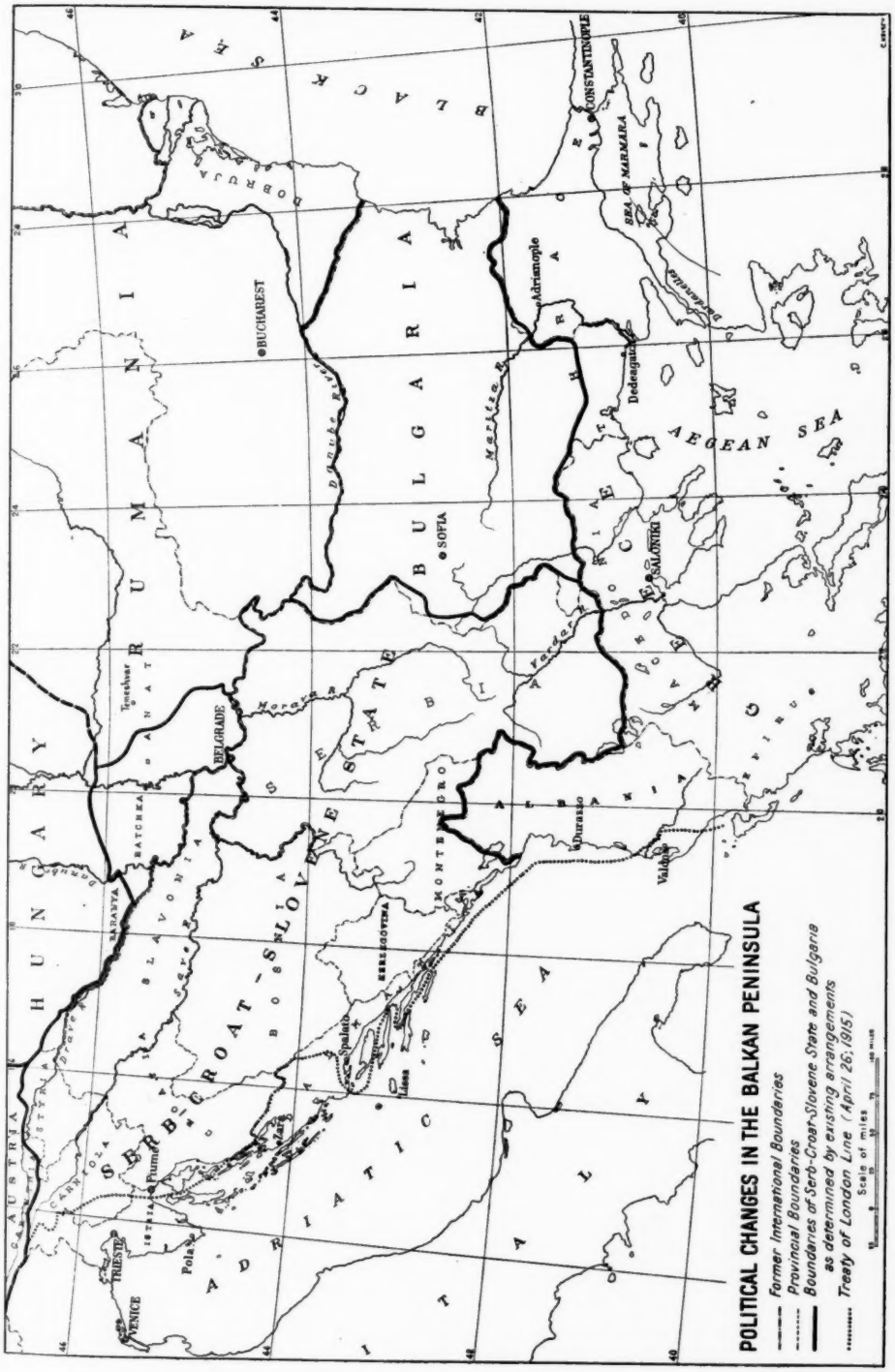

FIG. 3—Map showing the boundaries of the Balkan States as far as can be determined up to date.

"Berlin-Bagdad" route.

running from northwest to southeast. At the northern end, with Belgrade holding the gate, it opens onto the plains of the middle Danube: the southern end, held by Saloniki, opens onto the Ægean. From the Morava valley by way of the basin of Sofia a road leads into the Maritza valley opening onto Constantinople and the Straits. North of the Balkan Range lies the open valley of the lower Danube, leading to the steppes of southern Russia.

Following the earlier barbarian movements that involved the fall of Rome came in the later sixth century Slav tribes from beyond the Carpathians. They entered the peninsula by the open northern frontier and by the end of the next century they reached the Greek lands. Agriculture gave them a firm attachment to the soil. Their entry was closely followed by that of the Bulgar, a people of Asiatic origin who came by the steppe lands of southern Russia. A warlike, nomadic pastoral people, they settled in the eastern part of the Balkans and there mingled with the earlier Slavs. The modern Bulgars are thus of mixed origin; they are generally classed as a branch of the Southern Slavs.

In the fourteenth century came the Turks from steppe and semi-desert Anatolia. They overran the peninsula, penetrating Europe even as far as the gates of Vienna. Since the end of the seventeenth century, however, the Turk has been gradually losing his hold on European lands and the release from his yoke has meant the revival of national states in the Balkans. We have already spoken of Greece. Differentiation of the states of the Continental Block arose as a result of differences in the people, especially differences in the original inhabitants with whom the incoming Slav tribes mingled and the differences in the regions they occupied.

Bulgaria

The present Bulgarian state is built round two natural units, the plateau land sloping from the Balkan Range to the lower Danube and the Maritza basin opening onto the Black Sea, Constantinople and the Ægean. The main connection between the two is by the enclosed basin of Sofia, the capital. More accessible and nearer Constantinople the Bulgarian lands have been more deeply affected by Turkish rule than those of the other states. The

Danubian region only gained autonomy in 1878, the Maritza region (formerly known as Eastern Rumelia) in 1885.

Bulgaria is essentially an agricultural land. The Danubian section has a distinctly steppe-like character. It produces remarkable crops of wheat though harvests are liable to fluctuate through drought. The Maritza valley, open to Mediterranean influences and of more varied relief, produces a greater variety of crops—wheat, maize, tobacco, peppers, rice. Here also the vine, mulberry, and the Mediterranean fruit trees flourish.

The Black Sea coasts are inhospitable. Good harbors are lacking. Burgas is the best port. Varna is occasionally ice-bound in winter. Furthermore, Constantinople and the narrow straits hold the key to the open seas. The history of the Slav nations in the continental block might be considered as the history of efforts to reach a Mediterranean outlet. This is one of the chief factors involved in the question of Thrace and southern Macedonia, that is the region of the northern shores of the Ægean.

THRACE, SOUTHERN MACEDONIA AND SALONIKI

Until 1912 Thrace and Macedonia formed part of Turkey. At the conclusion of the war when Turkey lost the greater part of her hold on European lands the question of their disposition roused the bitter feelings that quickly led to the second Balkan war. Unfortunately, even with the best will in the world the drawing of boundaries is exceedingly difficult here. The climatic map shows how varied are the natural influences that meet in Thrace and Macedonia, and what is true of physical conditions is true of the people. In Macedonia and western Thrace meet Serb and Bulgar (and in many cases it is difficult to say which is which) Turk and Greek. As the Greeks occupy the coast it would be awarded to them if ethnic grounds alone were to be considered, but on economic and political grounds the inland states desire a part of the seaboard, and the part particularly coveted by Serb and Bulgar includes Saloniki, outlet of the Morava-Vardar route, second only to Constantinople as an outlet for the Balkans.

According to the terms of the Treaty of Neuilly, signed by Bulgaria November 27 last, she loses the Ægean seaboard gained in 1913, including the port of Dedeagatch connected by rail with

the Maritza valley. There is a possibility, however, that a "corridor" will be allotted her giving access to the Mediterranean (or at least some guarantee of free access) in the eastern part of western Thrace. The disposition of this part of Thrace awaits the settlement with Turkey. By the terms of the treaty Bulgaria loses to Serbia three small areas on her western frontier. The frontier with Rumania remains as in 1913.

CONSTANTINOPLE

As a result of the Balkan wars Turkey in Europe was reduced to eastern Thrace and Constantinople. The situation of Constantinople makes the future of this city one of the greatest of the political problems of the war. It forms a part of the general problem of Turkey which will be discussed in a succeeding number of the *Journal.*

The Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, (Yugo-Slavia)

The western branch of the Southern (Yugo) Slavs occupies an area extending from the eastern Alps in Carniola and Carinthia to northern Albania. Although essentially one people different sections have developed under very different historical conditions. The Croats and Slovenes, little affected by Turkish influence and in closer touch with western Europe, have had superior cultural opportunities. Their affiliations, for instance, are seen in their religious allegiance. Most of them are Catholics, whereas the Serbs belong to the Greek Orthodox Church. In Bosnia, under Turkish control until annexed by Austria in 1908, are many Moslems. Such are the present divergences that it has been questioned whether the new state of the Southern Slavs can hold together.

SERBIA

The nucleus of Serbia and thus of the new state is the basin of the lower Morava valley focusing on Belgrade. This was the first part of Serbia released from the Turk. It is a land of gentle relief, fertile soil, and good climate. It has abundant rain and a long mild autumn suited to the cultivation of maize and of such fruits as the plum, for which Serbia is particularly known. The country has likewise long been famous for its pig-raising originally dependent

on the mast of the oak and beech forests, now related as in our Middle West to corn production.

To the good agricultural lands of the lower Morava has now been added a similarly fertile terrain formerly belonging to Hungary though peopled by Slavs. This includes Slavonia between the Save and the Drave and an area north of the Danube, including a part of the Banat. The Banat has figured prominently among the disputed areas. The western part of the banat is Slav, Saxon and Magyar; the eastern is predominantly Rumanian.

South of Nish, the old capital, the Morava valley closes in and we enter a mountainous country in which, however, fertile basins suitable for agriculture are to be found. But elsewhere agriculture gives place to pastoral pursuits.

MONTENEGRO

The whole of the western mountain belt is primarily a land of forest and pasture. Its general character may be illustrated by the small country of Montenegro. Montenegro is a typically isolated, inaccessible mountain state and for this reason has been able to maintain its independence. The Montenegrins are shepherds and goatherds, with all the conservatism of a pastoral folk and the love of freedom of the mountaineer.

THE ADRIATIC COAST

Westwards the mountains drop sharply to the Adriatic. The narrow coastal strip thus formed is very different from the interior country. A drowned coast of inlet and island like Greece, it supports a maritime population. It also enjoys a Mediterranean type of climate, distinguished, however, by the winter prevalence of the fierce *bora,* the cold dry wind descending from the mountains.

The physical conditions of life on the eastern Adriatic coast make it natural enough that this region should readily absorb cultural influences from the opposite shore and it has done so since Roman times. The cities have a distinctly Italian appearance and Italian is generally spoken. But the people are Slav with a few exceptions. The population of Trieste and the western strip of Istria is Italian by a large majority. Almost precisely half of the

population of Fiume is Italian and there are considerable numbers of Italians in Zara and Spalato. The Adriatic question has been briefly discussed in the *Journal* (Three Problem Ports of Europe —Danzig, Trieste, Fiume), May, 1919. As this question still remains unsettled the new boundary cannot be given. The map shows the Treaty of London line. As that agreement was made before the breakup of Austria and the creation of a Serb-Croat-Slovene state it has been thought desirable that adjustments be made in the interests of the later.

Albania

Albania is the least accessible and the most backward region of the Balkan Peninsula. It is remote from the main highways of travel. Elevated mountain ranges cut it off on the east; on the west the Adriatic shores with lagoon and delta and swampy plain are uninviting. The Albanians are the oldest and the least mixed race of the peninsula, descendants of early inhabitants driven to refuge in these mountain fastnesses. Here they have maintained primitive customs and organizations foreign to modern Europe. The basis of society is the tribe, hence the blood feud. Warlike tastes and lack of developed resources encourage the tendency to brigandage. Although under nominal Turkish control and although the majority are nominally Moslems the Albanians have in fact been little affected by the Turk. The long continuance of Turkish rule may be ascribed to the dominance of tribal as opposed to national feeling and this remains the chief weakness in the creation of a new national state.

The fate of Albania has not yet been finally decided. Italy, however, will certainly retain Valona (guarding the entrance to the Adriatic) and she will probably have a mandate over the major portion of an independent Albania. Greece will not improbably add to her territory of northern Epirus.

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(2) An analysis of this book is made by Marion I. Newbigin in The Problem of the South Slavs (Yugoslavs), *Scottish Geographical Magazine*, Vol. 35, 1919, pp. 1-15.

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The Ethnography of the Yugo-Slavs. By Milivoy S. Stanoyevich. February, 1919.
The Balkans, Macedonia, and the War. By H. Charles Woods. July, 1918.
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The Awakening of Albania. By G. P. Scriven. August, 1919.

(6) The series of base maps and block diagrams published by the American Geographical Society includes several of the Balkans, among them a block diagram of the Balkans, wall size (41½" x 107"), which will be found particularly helpful for teaching purposes.

NOTES FROM THE CLASSROOM

SUGGESTIVE WAYS OF TEACHING PLACE GEOGRAPHY

By FRED K. BRANOM
Chicago Normal College

Undoubtedly most geography teachers are agreed upon the necessity for a knowledge of locational geography. There is a certain number of places which an educated person should be able to locate just as there are certain words which he should be able to spell. Our pupils should leave school with such an equipment. With its content we are not here concerned. Upon this probably no two teachers will be in exact agreement. Each must have his own standard, but the differences are not likely to be fundamental.

Place geography, properly considered, is largely a matter of the "map habit." Too many lessons are conducted with no maps before the pupil. Early in life he should begin to use maps. He should use both those that are on the classroom wall and those that are in his book and atlas. He should be trained in the practice of constant reference to them. If a place is worthy of mention it is surely worthy of location. In the teaching of locational geography drill is necessary, but not the old-fashioned kind where the pupil keeps repeating a thing in the same old way innumerable

times. Due emphasis may be given by more intelligent methods. Regarding such the following suggestions are offered.

THE JOURNEY LESSON

The (imaginary) journey lesson, which appeals to the play instinct, offers excellent opportunities for the teaching of place geography. Such a lesson may be used in all grades and it may occupy one or more periods. The length of time is not nearly so important as the enthusiasm of the class.

Journeys may be taken from the home city to various parts of the world. Routes should be determined by railroad and steamship folders and other sources. The classes of the writer, for instance, have gone from Chicago by water around the world. They have traveled by rail and water to various parts of North America.

Various means of arousing the interests of the pupils may be used. Some of the pupils may represent salesmen, some may be explorers, some government officials, while others may go for a pleasure trip. Letters may be written from various places and a diary kept. The pupil may trace his route on a wall map, he may put it on an outline map, or on a rough sketch map. The important places passed through or near are located. Sometimes, to vary the journey, trips may be taken north and south on the meridian and east and west on the parallel passing through the home city.

THE REVIEW LESSON

Another way of teaching locational geography is found in the review lesson. Recently a class was visited which was having a review on wheat. In the preceding lessons, among other points, the pupils had discussed the places where wheat is raised and the various parts of the world to which it might be shipped either as wheat or as flour. One of the problems which were given to the pupils was to trace the wheat from the regions where it is grown to the places where it is consumed, and to name the important places passed through. As wheat is raised in many parts of the world, many routes were pointed out and a large part of the world was covered. Some of the pupils traced the routes by rough sketch maps which left no doubt the places were firmly fixed in their minds. This is one way of drawing maps and in many cases a rough sketch is better than an elaborate drawing.

THE PUPILS' OWN LIST OF ESSENTIALS

Another plan has been used with much success. The pupils are told to write the names of all places mentioned and pointed out in class each day. Near the end of the term or at certain intervals, each pupil makes a list of those places which he considers of enough importance to locate. Then the lists are compared and discussed in class and from all the lists a list is made which the class thinks is essential. The importance of a place has to be shown clearly before it is put on the list. A list of places made in some such manner appeals strongly to the pupils because they have made it.

Occasionally it is a good plan to give a blank map to the pupils and have them locate a few places. Five or ten minutes spent in this way at certain times will stimulate the pupils, and the teacher can ascertain whether he is successfully teaching place geography.

MEETING OF WISCONSIN NORMAL SCHOOL TEACHERS OF GEOGRAPHY, MADISON, JANUARY 23, 1920

It is a rare thing for normal school teachers to hold a separate and distinct educational meeting, but it was done in Wisconsin, January 22 to 24, 1920. Over 250 teachers attended. One section was devoted to geography. Several papers and lively discussions made up an interesting program. A committee was appointed and funds provided to carry on a state-wide campaign of education for the purpose of stimulating interest in the study of geography.

Following is a list of questions submitted for discussion:

Questions Submitted for Discussion at the Madison Meeting of the Wisconsin Normal Teachers of Geography

FUNCTION

1. What is the central organizing thought in Geography?

VALUES

2. What is the bearing of the study of Geography under modern citizenship?

3. Will a reconstruction and resuscitation of the subject of Geography in the state ever take place until those who are interested in the cause organize a campaign of propaganda upon its value and place in elementary and secondary education?

THE COURSE OF STUDY

4. How much Geography should be required of every student?

5. What proportion of the time should be spent on methods? On academic work? On place Geography? On regions outside of the United States?

6. Should there be a course in Geography common to all as a prerequisite to the course which specializes for primary, grammar, high school, or rural groups?

7. In what respects should the courses for grammar, primary, and rural groups differ?

8. What should be the content of the course in Geography for Normal School students, both as to subject matter and method?

9. Should electives in Geography be given before the introductory course? Should credits for courses thus taken be convertible into credits for the basic course?

10. What should be taught in the way of a geographical interpretation of the war?

METHODS

11. What is the place and value of the problem-project method in Geography?

12. What other methods, devices, and suggestions can be used for vitalizing the study of Geography?

13. In what grade should Geography begin? Should it be independent or correlated? Should it have as much time as in the upper grades? Should it be begun through the natural product series or through the natural phenomenon series?

RELATION TO TRAINING SCHOOLS

14. How may the work in Geography in the Normal School best be made to function in the Training School?

RELATION TO STATE DEPARTMENT

15. Should we attempt to get the State Department to allow us to prepare a new outline for the Wisconsin state manual?

16. Ought not the Normal School instructors in Geography to be doing more work in the County Institutes?

17. What can be done to stimulate the teaching of Geography in the grades?

R. H. WHITBECK

GEOGRAPHICAL ITEMS FROM THE COLLEGES

The University of Wisconsin has 1,200 students enrolled in geography courses. One class in physical and economic geography includes 800 students. They are handled in three lecture sections and about thirty quiz sections. An advanced class in Overseas Commerce includes 150 students. The faculty of geography includes one professor, one associate professor, two assistant professors, three instructors, one lecturer, and three assistants, or eleven in all.

Professor Lawrence Martin, formerly a member of the department, who has been in Europe serving on various boundary commissions, has returned to the United States and is located in the War College in Washington. Professor Martin's place at the University of Wisconsin is now filled by Professor A. K. Lobeck, formerly of Columbia University. Professors F. E. Williams and V. C. Finch, who were in government service in Washington during the war, are back in their university positions.

During the coming summer Professors Finch and Williams and Mr. Blanchard will take charge of the geography courses at Wisconsin. Professor Lobeck will teach at Columbia and Professor Whitbeck at Cornell.

Several important changes in departments of geography have recently occurred. Professor R. D. Salisbury, formerly head of the Department of Geography of Chicago University, has become head of the Department of Geology in that institution and is succeeded by Professor H. H. Barrows. Professor Walter Tower has resigned from the University of Chicago to accept a position with the Consolidated Steel Company in New York.

Professor N. A. Bengtson, of the Department of Geography of the University of Nebraska, has resigned to act as oil geologist for a private company.

Professor J. Russell Smith, late of the University of Pennsylvania, has been appointed Professor of Economic Geography in Columbia University. Professor G. B. Roorbach has resigned from the University of Pennsylvania to accept a chair in the school of Business Administration of Harvard University.

R. H. WHITBECK

THE OBITUARY OF A NOTABLE TREE

The plant world has its personalities. With historic oaks and elms we are well acquainted. Such glory, however, is usually of a reflected nature, but there is a notable exception in the famous algaroba tree of Hawaii, which may be described as truly distinguished in its own right. The death of this tree in October last calls forth a merited tribute (*Hawaiian Forester and Agriculturist,* December, 1919). According to the generally accepted date it was in 1837 that the Roman Catholic missioner Father Bachelot planted the seed of the first algaroba tree in Honolulu.

The algaroba, the mesquite of our southwest, has a considerable economic value. It grows on arid soil which it improves. It yields an excellent fuel wood. Its pods furnish a nutritive cattle food, particularly useful inasmuch as it provides fodder during the long dry summer when the grass has been exhausted. Its flowers secrete a nectar producing a deliciously flavored honey. And the algaroba is highly appreciated as a shade tree. Descendants of the original algaroba of Honolulu now cover tens of thousands of acres of formerly barren land which they have made productive.

GEOGRAPHICAL PUBLICATIONS

OUR FOOD SUPPLY

The World's Food Resources. By J. Russell Smith. 634 pp.; ills., maps, diagrs., index. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1919. $3.50. 5¾ x 8½.

There is no necessity to speak of the wide interest in the theme with which this book deals. Everyone has been taught by the war and is still being reminded of it. Professor Smith outlines the necessity for its due consideration in the introduction written in his customarily vivid style. "The food supply is the first necessity of mankind; and a satisfactory food

supply is a necessity of advancing civilization; for, as President Wilson recently put it, Hunger does not breed reform."

Professor Smith takes up in sequence the several classes of food products, giving a detailed, practical account of each and retaining throughout an essentially geographical treatment. As a particular illustration one might note the discussion of the dried and canned fruit industries in relation to climate. From the general geographical standpoint the last chapters are perhaps the most interesting. The Ultimate Food Supply describes the extent to which the world's resources are utilized at present and the possibilities for future extension, a separate chapter being devoted to Tree Crops, a topic on which Professor Smith is specially qualified to speak. Distribution of Food and of Men was printed in part in the April, 1919, number of the *Journal* as "The Scientific City and Its Food Supply." The concluding chapter of the book is significantly entitled Hunger, Trade and War.

The book is amply illustrated with half-tones, graphs of statistical data and distribution maps, many of the last reproduced from The World's Atlas of Agriculture (Baker and Finch).

FRANCE AND ITS REGIONS

Geography of France. By Raoul Blanchard and Millicent Todd. 238 pp.; maps, diagrs., index. Rand McNally & Co., Chicago, 1919. $1.50. 5 x 7¼.

This book was written after the armistice for the American Expeditionary Force. Two circumstances combine to make it as welcome to teachers of geography as if specifically written for them—it should, of course, be remarked that one of the authors is a well-known French geographer and teacher. On the one hand is the general interest in France both in herself and as a nation of western Europe. On the other hand France is most admirably adapted for geographical study alike by the variety of regions within her frontiers and the high development of her regional life. It is not surprising that French geographers have produced a series of splendid regional geographies, works unfortunately not available to the majority of our geography teachers. Some idea of the character of the French study of regional geography was given in the article "The Real France" (March, 1919, number of the *Journal*) by M. de Martonne, who briefly sketched the regions of Brittany, Champagne and Lorraine. Along similar lines the Geography of France gives a complete picture of the country, the regions which have been the scene of the war being treated in somewhat greater detail.

The latter part of the book takes up the economic geography of France and a final chapter summarizes the broader relations that France finds through her colonies. The text is illustrated by relief maps and another valuable feature is the pronouncing index.

IRELAND

Ireland The Outpost. By Grenville A. J. Cole. 78 pp.; maps. Oxford University Press, New York, 1919. 5¾ x 8¾.

In "Geography and the Irish Question" (October, 1919, number of the *Journal*) W. R. McConnell discussed certain phases of Irish geography, emphasising in particular the "inexorable" relations that nature has imposed between Ireland and Great Britain. This is the viewpoint of Ireland The Outpost, though the outlook here is broader, for Ireland is also considered from its situation on the western edge of Eurasia.

"Ireland has lain in the paths of great migrations, from Berber Africa, from the mouths of Frisian rivers, from the viks and fjords of the sterner northlands. From her own drowned valleys, the harbors that knew the ships of Gades and of Gaul, her people have moved westward and linked the old world with the new. At times she snatches the light that floods across from Europe, and adds to its brightness the ardent glow of her response. At times the sea-mist gathers along her mountain-barriers, and she sinks back into the haze of the Atlantic, elusive as the Fortunate Isles."

The story is told in this sequence. A preliminary sketch gives the physical foundations of the Outpost. The successive movements of peoples and cultural influences are then traced. For the discussion of the more recent events Ireland is divided into three natural regions—the Barrier of Leinster and the Irish Plain, with its "gates" looking towards England; the Uplands of the North, with the eastern section in close relation, physical and human to Scotland; the Ranges of the South largely isolated from the rest of the country and having an outlook through innumerable harbors over seas—in ancient times to France and Mediterranean lands, now across to America.

BASE MAP OF THE UNITED STATES

The U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey (Washington, D. C.) has recently published an **Outline Map of the United States** on the Lambert Zenithal Equal Area Projection. The size of the map is 26½ in. x 20½ in.; the scale 1:7,500,000. State boundaries and the principal rivers are shown and a limited number of towns, including the state capitals. The price of the map is 15 cents.